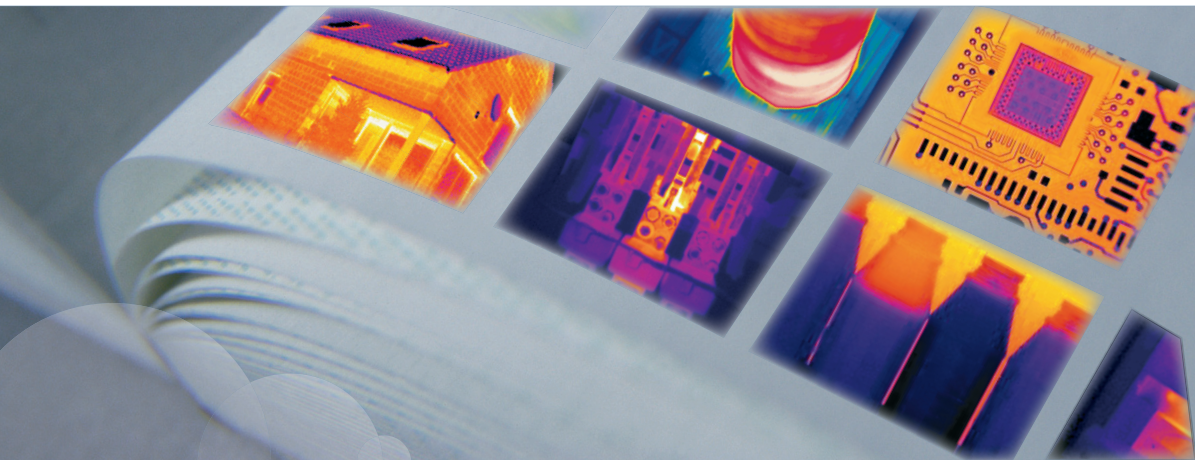




User's manual



FLIR Ax5 series

Publ. No.	T559770
Revision	a598
Language	English (EN)
Issue date	April 2, 2012

FLIR Ax5 series

User's manual



Legal disclaimer

All products manufactured by FLIR Systems are warranted against defective materials and workmanship for a period of one (1) year from the delivery date of the original purchase, provided such products have been under normal storage, use and service, and in accordance with FLIR Systems instruction.

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The Quality Management System under which these products are developed and manufactured has been certified in accordance with the ISO 9001 standard.

FLIR Systems is committed to a policy of continuous development; therefore we reserve the right to make changes and improvements on any of the products described in this manual without prior notice.

Patents

One or several of the following patents or design patents apply to the products and/or features described in this manual:

0002258-2; 000279476-0001; 000439161; 000499579-0001; 000653423; 000726344; 000859020; 000889290; 001106306-0001; 001707738; 001707746; 001707787; 001776519; 0101577-5; 0102150-0; 0200629-4; 0300911-5; 0302837-0; 1144833; 1182246; 1182620; 1188086; 1285345; 1287138; 1299699; 1325808; 1336775; 1365299; 1402918; 1404291; 1678485; 1732314; 200530018812.0; 200830143636.7; 2106017; 235308; 3006596; 3006597; 466540; 483782; 484155; 518836; 60004227.8; 60122153.2; 602004011681.5-08; 6707044; 68657; 7034300; 7110035; 7154093; 7157705; 7237946; 7312822; 7332716; 7336823; 7544944; 75530; 7667198; 7809258; 7826736; D540838; D549758; D579475; D584755; D599,392; DI6702302-9; DI6703574-4; DI6803572-1; DI6803853-4; DI6903617-9; DM/057692; DM/061609; Registration Number; ZL00809178.1; ZL01823221.3; ZL01823226.4; ZL02331553.9; ZL02331554.7; ZL200480034894.0; ZL200530120994.2; ZL200630130114.4; ZL200730151141.4; ZL200730339504.7; ZL200830128581.2; ZL200930190061.9

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WARNING

- (Applies only to Class A digital devices.) This equipment generates, uses, and can radiate radio frequency energy and if not installed and used in accordance with the instruction manual, may cause interference to radio communications. It has been tested and found to comply with the limits for a Class A computing device pursuant to Subpart J of Part 15 of FCC Rules, which are designed to provide reasonable protection against such interference when operated in a commercial environment. Operation of this equipment in a residential area is likely to cause interference in which case the user at his own expense will be required to take whatever measures may be required to correct the interference.
- (Applies only to Class B digital devices.) This equipment has been tested and found to comply with the limits for a Class B digital device, pursuant to Part 15 of the FCC Rules. These limits are designed to provide reasonable protection against harmful interference in a residential installation. This equipment generates, uses and can radiate radio frequency energy and, if not installed and used in accordance with the instructions, may cause harmful interference to radio communications. However, there is no guarantee that interference will not occur in a particular installation. If this equipment does cause harmful interference to radio or television reception, which can be determined by turning the equipment off and on, the user is encouraged to try to correct the interference by one or more of the following measures:
 - Reorient or relocate the receiving antenna.
 - Increase the separation between the equipment and receiver.
 - Connect the equipment into an outlet on a circuit different from that to which the receiver is connected.
 - Consult the dealer or an experienced radio/TV technician for help.
- (Applies only to digital devices subject to 15.19/RSS-210.) **NOTICE:** This device complies with Part 15 of the FCC Rules and with RSS-210 of Industry Canada. Operation is subject to the following two conditions:
 - 1 this device may not cause harmful interference, and
 - 2 this device must accept any interference received, including interference that may cause undesired operation.
- (Applies only to digital devices subject to 15.21.) **NOTICE:** Changes or modifications made to this equipment not expressly approved by (manufacturer name) may void the FCC authorization to operate this equipment.
- (Applies only to digital devices subject to 2.1091/2.1093/OET Bulletin 65.) **Radiofrequency radiation exposure Information:** The radiated output power of the device is far below the FCC radio frequency exposure limits. Nevertheless, the device shall be used in such a manner that the potential for human contact during normal operation is minimized.
- (Applies only to cameras with laser pointer:) Do not look directly into the laser beam. The laser beam can cause eye irritation.
- Applies only to cameras with battery:
 - Do not disassemble or do a modification to the battery. The battery contains safety and protection devices which, if they become damaged, can cause the battery to become hot, or cause an explosion or an ignition.

- If there is a leak from the battery and the fluid gets into your eyes, do not rub your eyes. Flush well with water and immediately get medical care. The battery fluid can cause injury to your eyes if you do not do this.
- Do not continue to charge the battery if it does not become charged in the specified charging time. If you continue to charge the battery, it can become hot and cause an explosion or ignition.
- Only use the correct equipment to discharge the battery. If you do not use the correct equipment, you can decrease the performance or the life cycle of the battery. If you do not use the correct equipment, an incorrect flow of current to the battery can occur. This can cause the battery to become hot, or cause an explosion and injury to persons.
- Make sure that you read all applicable MSDS (Material Safety Data Sheets) and warning labels on containers before you use a liquid: the liquids can be dangerous.
- If mounting the A3xx pt/A3xx f series camera on a pole, tower or any elevated location, use industry standard safe practices to avoid injuries.

CAUTION

- Do not point the infrared camera (with or without the lens cover) at intensive energy sources, for example devices that emit laser radiation, or the sun. This can have an unwanted effect on the accuracy of the camera. It can also cause damage to the detector in the camera.
- Do not use the camera in a temperature higher than +50°C (+122°F), unless specified otherwise in the user documentation. High temperatures can cause damage to the camera.
- (Applies only to cameras with laser pointer:) Protect the laser pointer with the protective cap when you do not operate the laser pointer.
- Applies only to cameras with battery:
 - Do not attach the batteries directly to a car's cigarette lighter socket, unless a specific adapter for connecting the batteries to a cigarette lighter socket is provided by FLIR Systems.
 - Do not connect the positive terminal and the negative terminal of the battery to each other with a metal object (such as wire).
 - Do not get water or salt water on the battery, or permit the battery to get wet.
 - Do not make holes in the battery with objects. Do not hit the battery with a hammer. Do not step on the battery, or apply strong impacts or shocks to it.
 - Do not put the batteries in or near a fire, or into direct sunlight. When the battery becomes hot, the built-in safety equipment becomes energized and can stop the battery charging process. If the battery becomes hot, damage can occur to the safety equipment and this can cause more heat, damage or ignition of the battery.
 - Do not put the battery on a fire or increase the temperature of the battery with heat.
 - Do not put the battery on or near fires, stoves, or other high-temperature locations.
 - Do not solder directly onto the battery.
 - Do not use the battery if, when you use, charge, or store the battery, there is an unusual smell from the battery, the battery feels hot, changes color, changes shape, or is in an unusual condition. Contact your sales office if one or more of these problems occurs.
 - Only use a specified battery charger when you charge the battery.

- The temperature range through which you can charge the battery is $\pm 0^{\circ}\text{C}$ to $+45^{\circ}\text{C}$ ($+32^{\circ}\text{F}$ to $+113^{\circ}\text{F}$), unless specified otherwise in the user documentation. If you charge the battery at temperatures out of this range, it can cause the battery to become hot or to break. It can also decrease the performance or the life cycle of the battery.
- The temperature range through which you can discharge the battery is -15°C to $+50^{\circ}\text{C}$ ($+5^{\circ}\text{F}$ to $+122^{\circ}\text{F}$), unless specified otherwise in the user documentation. Use of the battery out of this temperature range can decrease the performance or the life cycle of the battery.
- When the battery is worn, apply insulation to the terminals with adhesive tape or similar materials before you discard it.
- Remove any water or moisture on the battery before you install it.
- Do not apply solvents or similar liquids to the camera, the cables, or other items. This can cause damage.
- Be careful when you clean the infrared lens. The lens has a delicate anti-reflective coating.
- Do not clean the infrared lens too vigorously. This can damage the anti-reflective coating.
- In furnace and other high-temperature applications, you must mount a heatshield on the camera. Using the camera in furnace and other high-temperature applications without a heatshield can cause damage to the camera.
- (Applies only to cameras with an automatic shutter that can be disabled.) Do not disable the automatic shutter in the camera for a prolonged time period (typically max. 30 minutes). Disabling the shutter for a longer time period may harm, or irreparably damage, the detector.
- The encapsulation rating is valid only when all openings on the camera are sealed with their designated covers, hatches, or caps. This includes, but is not limited to, compartments for data storage, batteries, and connectors.
- (Applies only to FLIR A3xx f/A3xx pt series cameras.)
 - Except as described in this manual, do not open the FLIR A3xx pt/A3xx f series camera for any reason. Disassembly of the camera (including removal of the cover) can cause permanent damage and will void the warranty.
 - Do not leave fingerprints on the FLIR A3xx pt/A3xx f series camera's infrared optics.
 - The FLIR A3xx pt/A3xx f series camera requires a power supply of 24 VDC. Operating the camera outside of the specified input voltage range or the specified operating temperature range can cause permanent damage.
 - When lifting the FLIR A3xx pt series camera use the camera body and base, not the tubes.
- (Applies only to FLIR GF309 cameras.) **CAUTION:** The exceptionally wide temperature range of the FLIR GF309 infrared camera is designed for performing highly accurate electrical and mechanical inspections and can also "see through flames" for inspecting gas-fired furnaces, chemical heaters and coal-fired boilers. IN ORDER TO DERIVE ACCURATE TEMPERATURE MEASUREMENTS IN THESE ENVIRONMENTS THE GF309 OPERATOR MUST HAVE A STRONG UNDERSTANDING OF RADIOMETRIC FUNDAMENTALS AS WELL AS THE PRODUCTS AND CONDITIONS OF COMBUSTION THAT IMPACT REMOTE TEMPERATURE MEASUREMENT. The Infrared Training Center (itc) offers a wide range of world class infrared

training for thermography professionals including GF309 operators. For more information about obtaining the training and certification you require, contact your FLIR sales representative or itc at www.infraredtraining.com.

2

Notice to user

Typographical conventions

This manual uses the following typographical conventions:

- **Semibold** is used for menu names, menu commands and labels, and buttons in dialog boxes.
 - *Italic* is used for important information.
 - **Monospace** is used for code samples.
 - **UPPER CASE** is used for names on keys and buttons.
-

User-to-user forums

Exchange ideas, problems, and infrared solutions with fellow thermographers around the world in our user-to-user forums. To go to the forums, visit:

<http://www.infraredtraining.com/community/boards/>

Calibration

(This notice only applies to cameras with measurement capabilities.)

We recommend that you send in the camera for calibration once a year. Contact your local sales office for instructions on where to send the camera.

Accuracy

(This notice only applies to cameras with measurement capabilities.)

For very accurate results, we recommend that you wait 5 minutes after you have started the camera before measuring a temperature.

For cameras where the detector is cooled by a mechanical cooler, this time period excludes the time it takes to cool down the detector.

Disposal of electronic waste

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As with most electronic products, this equipment must be disposed of in an environmentally friendly way, and in accordance with existing regulations for electronic waste.

Please contact your FLIR Systems representative for more details.

Training

To read about infrared training, visit:

- <http://www.infraredtraining.com>
 - <http://www.irtraining.com>
 - <http://www.irtraining.eu>
-

3 Customer help

General

For customer help, visit:

<http://support.flir.com>

Submitting a question

To submit a question to the customer help team, you must be a registered user. It only takes a few minutes to register online. If you only want to search the knowledge-base for existing questions and answers, you do not need to be a registered user.

When you want to submit a question, make sure that you have the following information to hand:

- The camera model
 - The camera serial number
 - The communication protocol, or method, between the camera and your PC (for example, HDMI, Ethernet, USB™, or FireWire™)
 - Operating system on your PC
 - Microsoft® Office version
 - Full name, publication number, and revision number of the manual
-

Downloads

On the customer help site you can also download the following:

- Firmware updates for your infrared camera
 - Program updates for your PC software
 - User documentation
 - Application stories
 - Technical publications
-

General

Our manuals are updated several times per year, and we also issue product-critical notifications of changes on a regular basis.

To access the latest manuals and notifications, go to the Download tab at:

<http://support.flir.com>

It only takes a few minutes to register online. In the download area you will also find the latest releases of manuals for our other products, as well as manuals for our historical and obsolete products.

5 Introduction

T639462,a1



The FLIR Ax5 camera has features and functions that make it the natural choice for anyone who uses PC software to solve problems and for whom 336×256 pixel resolution is sufficient. Among its main features are GigE Vision and GenICam compliance, which makes it plug-and-play when used with software packages such as IMAQ Vision and Halcon.

Key features:

- Very affordable
- Compact ($40 \times 43 \times 106$ mm)
- GigE Vision and GenICam compliant
- GigE Vision lockable connector
- PoE (power over Ethernet)
- 8- and 14-bit 336×256 images streamed at 60 Hz, signal linear
- High frame rates (60 Hz)
- Synchronization between cameras possible
- 1x+1x GPIO
- Compliant with any software that supports GenICam, including National Instruments IMAQ Vision, Stemmers Common Vision Blox, and COGNEX Vision Pro
- Lenses: 25° or 40°

Typical applications:

- Automation, thermal machine vision
- Entry-level “high-speed” R&D

6 Parts lists

6.1 *Contents of the cardboard box*

- Cardboard box
- Infrared camera with lens
- Downloads brochure
- Focus adjustment tool
- Printed Getting Started Guide
- Printed Important Information Guide
- Service & training brochure
- User documentation CD-ROM
- Registration card

NOTE: FLIR Systems reserves the right to discontinue models, parts or accessories, and other items, or to change specifications at any time without prior notice.

6.2 *Accessories*

- T127605, Cable M12 Pigtail
- T127606, Cable M12 Sync
- T198348, Cable kit Mains (UK,EU,US)
- T198349, Base support
- T198342, Focus adjustment tool
- T911112, PoE injector
- T951004, Ethernet cable CAT-6, 2 m/6.6 ft.

NOTE: FLIR Systems reserves the right to discontinue models, parts or accessories, and other items, or to change specifications at any time without prior notice.

7 Mechanical installation

The camera unit has been designed to allow it to be mounted in any position. It has a mounting interface on the bottom side with 4 metric M3 holes.

Note: The camera generates a considerable amount of heat during operation. This is normal. In order to transfer this heat, it is recommended that the camera is mounted on a base support or a heat sink made of a material that has a high capacity to transfer heat, e.g., aluminum. FLIR Systems provides *P/N T198349, Base support* for this purpose, but other base supports or heat sinks can be used.

If the camera unit is to be permanently mounted on the application site, certain steps have to be taken. The camera unit might need to be enclosed in a protective housing and, depending on the ambient conditions (e.g. temperature), the housing may need to be cooled by means of water or air. In very dusty conditions the installation might also need to have a stream of pressurized air directed to the lens, in order to prevent dust build-up.

When mounting the camera unit in harsh environments, every precaution should be taken when it comes to securing the unit. If the environment exposes the unit to severe vibrations, there may arise a need to secure the mounting screws by means of Loctite™ or any other industrial brand of thread-locking liquid, as well as dampen the vibrations by mounting the camera unit on a specially designed mounting base.

For further information regarding mounting recommendations and environmental enclosures, contact FLIR Systems.

The camera is typically powered using PoE (Power over Ethernet). A PoE injector and cable kit are available from FLIR Systems. See the part numbers below.

- T198348, Cable kit Mains (UK, EU, US)
- T911112, PoE injector
- T951004, Ethernet cable CAT-6, 2 m/6.6 ft.

8 Software installation

The principal software to configure and control the camera is Pleora GEVPlayer. This software is included in the Pleora eBus SDK, which can be downloaded from FLIR Systems. Additional software supporting the FLIR Ax5 camera series can also be downloaded from this site:

<http://support.flir.com/Ax5-software>

The camera is compliant to the following standards. Additional software and documentation resources can be downloaded from these sites.

- GeniCAM: *<http://www.genicam.org>*
- Gigabit Ethernet: *<http://www.ieee802.org/3>*

9 Cleaning the camera

9.1 *Camera housing, cables, and other items*

Liquids

Use one of these liquids:

- Warm water
 - A weak detergent solution
-

Equipment

A soft cloth

Procedure

Follow this procedure:

1	Soak the cloth in the liquid.
2	Twist the cloth to remove excess liquid.
3	Clean the part with the cloth.

CAUTION

Do not apply solvents or similar liquids to the camera, the cables, or other items. This can cause damage.

9.2 Infrared lens

Liquids

Use one of these liquids:

- 96% ethyl alcohol (C_2H_5OH).
- DEE (= 'ether' = diethylether, $C_4H_{10}O$).
- 50% acetone (= dimethylketone, $(CH_3)_2CO$) + 50% ethyl alcohol (by volume).
This liquid prevents drying marks on the lens.

Equipment

Cotton wool

Procedure

Follow this procedure:

1	Soak the cotton wool in the liquid.
2	Twist the cotton wool to remove excess liquid.
3	Clean the lens one time only and discard the cotton wool.

WARNING

Make sure that you read all applicable MSDS (Material Safety Data Sheets) and warning labels on containers before you use a liquid: the liquids can be dangerous.

CAUTION

- Be careful when you clean the infrared lens. The lens has a delicate anti-reflective coating.
- Do not clean the infrared lens too vigorously. This can damage the anti-reflective coating.

9.3 *Infrared detector*

General Even small amounts of dust on the infrared detector can result in major blemishes in the image. To remove any dust from the detector, follow the procedure below.

NOTE

- This section only applies to cameras where removing the lens exposes the infrared detector.
- In some cases the dust cannot be removed by following this procedure: the infrared detector must be cleaned mechanically. This mechanical cleaning must be carried out by an authorized service partner.

CAUTION In Step 2 below, do not use pressurized air from pneumatic air circuits in a workshop, etc., as this air usually contains oil mist to lubricate pneumatic tools.

Procedure Follow this procedure:

1	Remove the lens from the camera.
2	Use pressurized air from a compressed air canister to blow off the dust.

10 Technical data

For technical data for this product, please refer to the product catalog and technical datasheets on the User Documentation CD-ROM that comes with the camera.

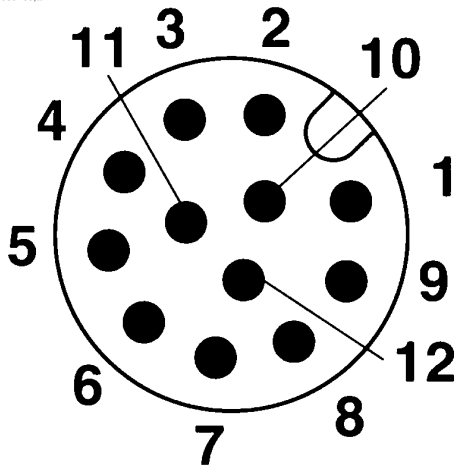
The product catalog and the datasheets are also available at <http://support.flir.com>.

11 Pin configurations and schematics

11.1 M12 connector pin configuration

This section specifies the pin configuration for the M12 connector on the rear side of the camera.

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Schematic diagram 1

Pin assignment M12 male connector, 12-pos., male side view

Pin	Signal	Description
1	RET_GB	Camera PWR -
2	PWR_GB	Camera PWR +
3	SYNC_OUT	LVC Buffer @ 3.3V, "0" = 24 MA max, "1" = -24 mA max.
4	SYNC_OUT_GND	= RET_GB = Camera PWR -
5	SYNC_IN	LVC Buffer @ 3.3V, "0" < 0.8 V, "1" > 2.0 V
6	SYNC_IN_GND	= RET_GB = Camera PWR -
7	GPO+	1 × opto-isolated, 2–40 VDC, max 185 mA
8	GPO-	= GP Input return

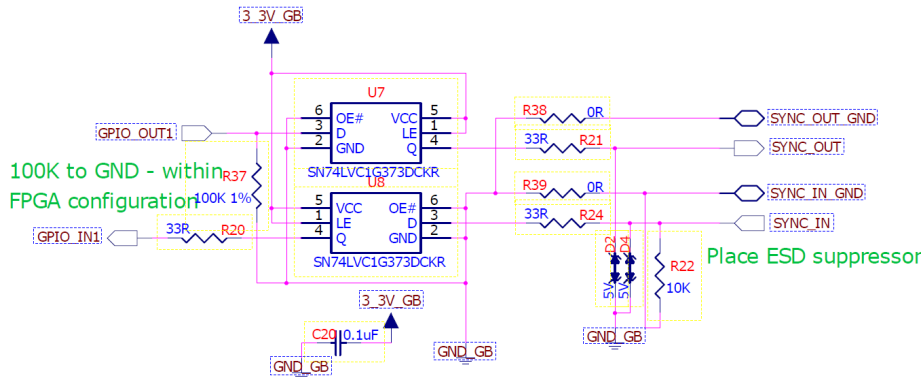
Pin	Signal	Description
9	GPIO_PWR	GP Output PWR. 2–40 VDC, max 200 mA
10	GPIO_GND	GP Output PWR return
11	GPI+	1 × opto-isolated, “0” < 2, “1” = 2–40 VDC
12	GPI-	GP Input return

Cables for the M12 connector are available from FLIR Systems. See the part numbers below.

- T127605, Cable M12 Pigtail
- T127606, Cable M12 Sync

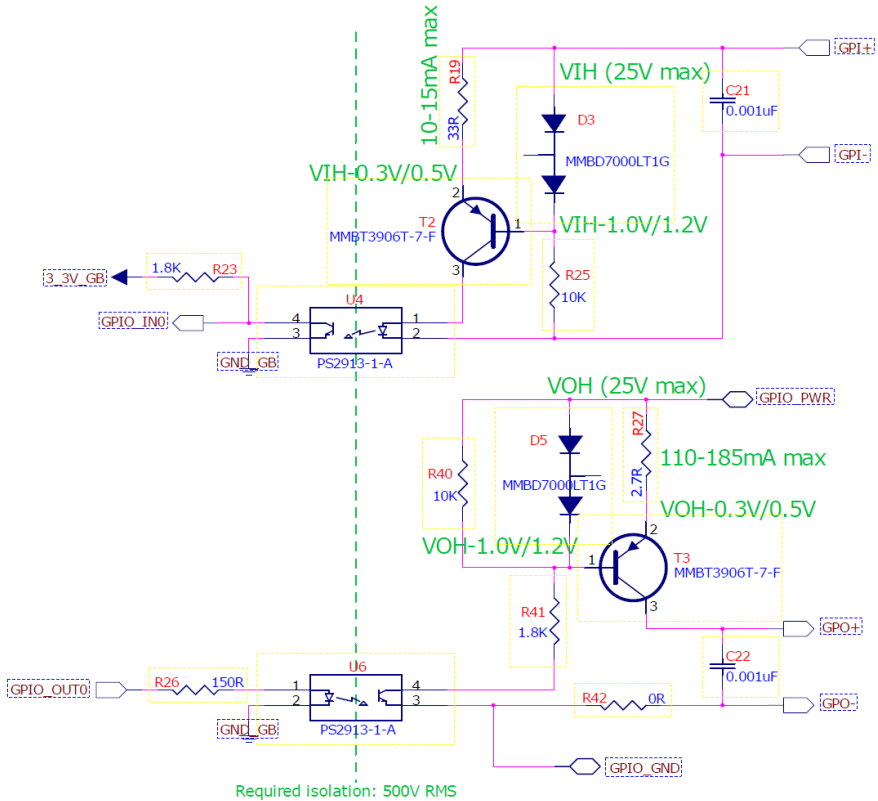
11.2 SYNC input/output schematics

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11.3 GP input/output schematics

T639469.a1



12 About FLIR Systems

FLIR Systems was established in 1978 to pioneer the development of high-performance infrared imaging systems, and is the world leader in the design, manufacture, and marketing of thermal imaging systems for a wide variety of commercial, industrial, and government applications. Today, FLIR Systems embraces five major companies with outstanding achievements in infrared technology since 1958—the Swedish AGEMA Infrared Systems (formerly AGA Infrared Systems), the three United States companies Indigo Systems, FSI, and Inframetrics, and the French company Cedip. In November 2007, Exttech Instruments was acquired by FLIR Systems.

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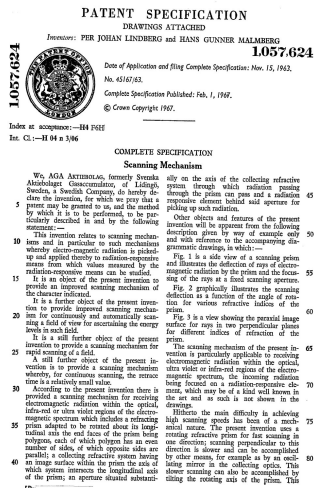


Figure 12.1 Patent documents from the early 1960s

The company has sold more than 200,000 infrared cameras worldwide for applications such as predictive maintenance, R & D, non-destructive testing, process control and automation, and machine vision, among many others.

FLIR Systems has three manufacturing plants in the United States (Portland, OR, Boston, MA, Santa Barbara, CA) and one in Sweden (Stockholm). Since 2007 there is also a manufacturing plant in Tallinn, Estonia. Direct sales offices in Belgium, Brazil,

United States Patent Office

3,253,498
Patented May 31, 1966

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China, France, Germany, Great Britain, Hong Kong, Italy, Japan, Korea, Sweden, and the USA—together with a worldwide network of agents and distributors—support our international customer base.

FLIR Systems is at the forefront of innovation in the infrared camera industry. We anticipate market demand by constantly improving our existing cameras and developing new ones. The company has set milestones in product design and development such as the introduction of the first battery-operated portable camera for industrial inspections, and the first uncooled infrared camera, to mention just two innovations.

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Figure 12.2 LEFT: Thermovision® Model 661 from 1969. The camera weighed approximately 25 kg (55 lb.), the oscilloscope 20 kg (44 lb.), and the tripod 15 kg (33 lb.). The operator also needed a 220 VAC generator set, and a 10 L (2.6 US gallon) jar with liquid nitrogen. To the left of the oscilloscope the Polaroid attachment (6 kg/13 lb.) can be seen. **RIGHT:** FLIR i7 from 2009. Weight: 0.34 kg (0.75 lb.), including the battery.

FLIR Systems manufactures all vital mechanical and electronic components of the camera systems itself. From detector design and manufacturing, to lenses and system electronics, to final testing and calibration, all production steps are carried out and supervised by our own engineers. The in-depth expertise of these infrared specialists ensures the accuracy and reliability of all vital components that are assembled into your infrared camera.

12.1 *More than just an infrared camera*

At FLIR Systems we recognize that our job is to go beyond just producing the best infrared camera systems. We are committed to enabling all users of our infrared camera systems to work more productively by providing them with the most powerful

camera–software combination. Especially tailored software for predictive maintenance, R & D, and process monitoring is developed in-house. Most software is available in a wide variety of languages.

We support all our infrared cameras with a wide variety of accessories to adapt your equipment to the most demanding infrared applications.

12.2 *Sharing our knowledge*

Although our cameras are designed to be very user-friendly, there is a lot more to thermography than just knowing how to handle a camera. Therefore, FLIR Systems has founded the Infrared Training Center (ITC), a separate business unit, that provides certified training courses. Attending one of the ITC courses will give you a truly hands-on learning experience.

The staff of the ITC are also there to provide you with any application support you may need in putting infrared theory into practice.

12.3 *Supporting our customers*

FLIR Systems operates a worldwide service network to keep your camera running at all times. If you discover a problem with your camera, local service centers have all the equipment and expertise to solve it within the shortest possible time. Therefore, there is no need to send your camera to the other side of the world or to talk to someone who does not speak your language.

12.4 *A few images from our facilities*

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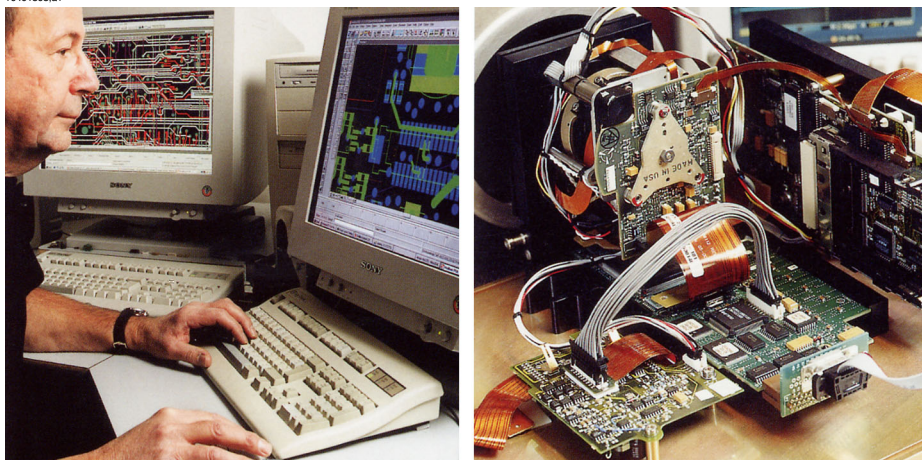


Figure 12.3 LEFT: Development of system electronics; RIGHT: Testing of an FPA detector

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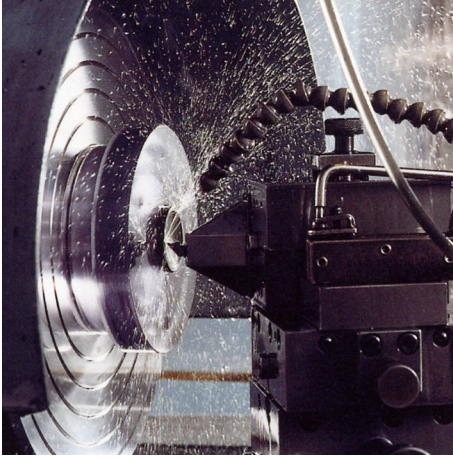


Figure 12.4 LEFT: Diamond turning machine; **RIGHT:** Lens polishing

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Figure 12.5 LEFT: Testing of infrared cameras in the climatic chamber; **RIGHT:** Robot used for camera testing and calibration

13 History of infrared technology

Before the year 1800, the existence of the infrared portion of the electromagnetic spectrum wasn't even suspected. The original significance of the infrared spectrum, or simply 'the infrared' as it is often called, as a form of heat radiation is perhaps less obvious today than it was at the time of its discovery by Herschel in 1800.

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Figure 13.1 Sir William Herschel (1738–1822)

The discovery was made accidentally during the search for a new optical material. Sir William Herschel – Royal Astronomer to King George III of England, and already famous for his discovery of the planet Uranus – was searching for an optical filter material to reduce the brightness of the sun's image in telescopes during solar observations. While testing different samples of colored glass which gave similar reductions in brightness he was intrigued to find that some of the samples passed very little of the sun's heat, while others passed so much heat that he risked eye damage after only a few seconds' observation.

Herschel was soon convinced of the necessity of setting up a systematic experiment, with the objective of finding a single material that would give the desired reduction in brightness as well as the maximum reduction in heat. He began the experiment by actually repeating Newton's prism experiment, but looking for the heating effect rather than the visual distribution of intensity in the spectrum. He first blackened the bulb of a sensitive mercury-in-glass thermometer with ink, and with this as his radiation detector he proceeded to test the heating effect of the various colors of the spectrum formed on the top of a table by passing sunlight through a glass prism. Other thermometers, placed outside the sun's rays, served as controls.

As the blackened thermometer was moved slowly along the colors of the spectrum, the temperature readings showed a steady increase from the violet end to the red end. This was not entirely unexpected, since the Italian researcher, Landriani, in a similar experiment in 1777 had observed much the same effect. It was Herschel,

however, who was the first to recognize that there must be a point where the heating effect reaches a maximum, and that measurements confined to the visible portion of the spectrum failed to locate this point.

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Figure 13.2 Marsilio Landriani (1746–1815)

Moving the thermometer into the dark region beyond the red end of the spectrum, Herschel confirmed that the heating continued to increase. The maximum point, when he found it, lay well beyond the red end – in what is known today as the ‘infrared wavelengths’.

When Herschel revealed his discovery, he referred to this new portion of the electromagnetic spectrum as the ‘thermometrical spectrum’. The radiation itself he sometimes referred to as ‘dark heat’, or simply ‘the invisible rays’. Ironically, and contrary to popular opinion, it wasn’t Herschel who originated the term ‘infrared’. The word only began to appear in print around 75 years later, and it is still unclear who should receive credit as the originator.

Herschel’s use of glass in the prism of his original experiment led to some early controversies with his contemporaries about the actual existence of the infrared wavelengths. Different investigators, in attempting to confirm his work, used various types of glass indiscriminately, having different transparencies in the infrared. Through his later experiments, Herschel was aware of the limited transparency of glass to the newly-discovered thermal radiation, and he was forced to conclude that optics for the infrared would probably be doomed to the use of reflective elements exclusively (i.e. plane and curved mirrors). Fortunately, this proved to be true only until 1830, when the Italian investigator, Melloni, made his great discovery that naturally occurring rock salt (NaCl) – which was available in large enough natural crystals to be made into lenses and prisms – is remarkably transparent to the infrared. The result was that rock salt became the principal infrared optical material, and remained so for the next hundred years, until the art of synthetic crystal growing was mastered in the 1930’s.

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Figure 13.3 Macedonio Melloni (1798–1854)

Thermometers, as radiation detectors, remained unchallenged until 1829, the year Nobili invented the thermocouple. (Herschel's own thermometer could be read to $0.2\text{ }^{\circ}\text{C}$ ($0.036\text{ }^{\circ}\text{F}$), and later models were able to be read to $0.05\text{ }^{\circ}\text{C}$ ($0.09\text{ }^{\circ}\text{F}$)). Then a breakthrough occurred; Melloni connected a number of thermocouples in series to form the first thermopile. The new device was at least 40 times as sensitive as the best thermometer of the day for detecting heat radiation – capable of detecting the heat from a person standing three meters away.

The first so-called 'heat-picture' became possible in 1840, the result of work by Sir John Herschel, son of the discoverer of the infrared and a famous astronomer in his own right. Based upon the differential evaporation of a thin film of oil when exposed to a heat pattern focused upon it, the thermal image could be seen by reflected light where the interference effects of the oil film made the image visible to the eye. Sir John also managed to obtain a primitive record of the thermal image on paper, which he called a 'thermograph'.

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Figure 13.4 Samuel P. Langley (1834–1906)

The improvement of infrared-detector sensitivity progressed slowly. Another major breakthrough, made by Langley in 1880, was the invention of the bolometer. This consisted of a thin blackened strip of platinum connected in one arm of a Wheatstone bridge circuit upon which the infrared radiation was focused and to which a sensitive galvanometer responded. This instrument is said to have been able to detect the heat from a cow at a distance of 400 meters.

An English scientist, Sir James Dewar, first introduced the use of liquefied gases as cooling agents (such as liquid nitrogen with a temperature of $-196\text{ }^{\circ}\text{C}$ ($-320.8\text{ }^{\circ}\text{F}$)) in low temperature research. In 1892 he invented a unique vacuum insulating container in which it is possible to store liquefied gases for entire days. The common ‘thermos bottle’, used for storing hot and cold drinks, is based upon his invention.

Between the years 1900 and 1920, the inventors of the world ‘discovered’ the infrared. Many patents were issued for devices to detect personnel, artillery, aircraft, ships – and even icebergs. The first operating systems, in the modern sense, began to be developed during the 1914–18 war, when both sides had research programs devoted to the military exploitation of the infrared. These programs included experimental systems for enemy intrusion/detection, remote temperature sensing, secure communications, and ‘flying torpedo’ guidance. An infrared search system tested during this period was able to detect an approaching airplane at a distance of 1.5 km (0.94 miles), or a person more than 300 meters (984 ft.) away.

The most sensitive systems up to this time were all based upon variations of the bolometer idea, but the period between the two wars saw the development of two revolutionary new infrared detectors: the image converter and the photon detector. At first, the image converter received the greatest attention by the military, because it enabled an observer for the first time in history to literally ‘see in the dark’. However, the sensitivity of the image converter was limited to the near infrared wavelengths, and the most interesting military targets (i.e. enemy soldiers) had to be illuminated by infrared search beams. Since this involved the risk of giving away the observer’s position to a similarly-equipped enemy observer, it is understandable that military interest in the image converter eventually faded.

The tactical military disadvantages of so-called ‘active’ (i.e. search beam-equipped) thermal imaging systems provided impetus following the 1939–45 war for extensive secret military infrared-research programs into the possibilities of developing ‘passive’ (no search beam) systems around the extremely sensitive photon detector. During this period, military secrecy regulations completely prevented disclosure of the status of infrared-imaging technology. This secrecy only began to be lifted in the middle of the 1950’s, and from that time adequate thermal-imaging devices finally began to be available to civilian science and industry.

14 Theory of thermography

14.1 Introduction

The subjects of infrared radiation and the related technique of thermography are still new to many who will use an infrared camera. In this section the theory behind thermography will be given.

14.2 The electromagnetic spectrum

The electromagnetic spectrum is divided arbitrarily into a number of wavelength regions, called *bands*, distinguished by the methods used to produce and detect the radiation. There is no fundamental difference between radiation in the different bands of the electromagnetic spectrum. They are all governed by the same laws and the only differences are those due to differences in wavelength.

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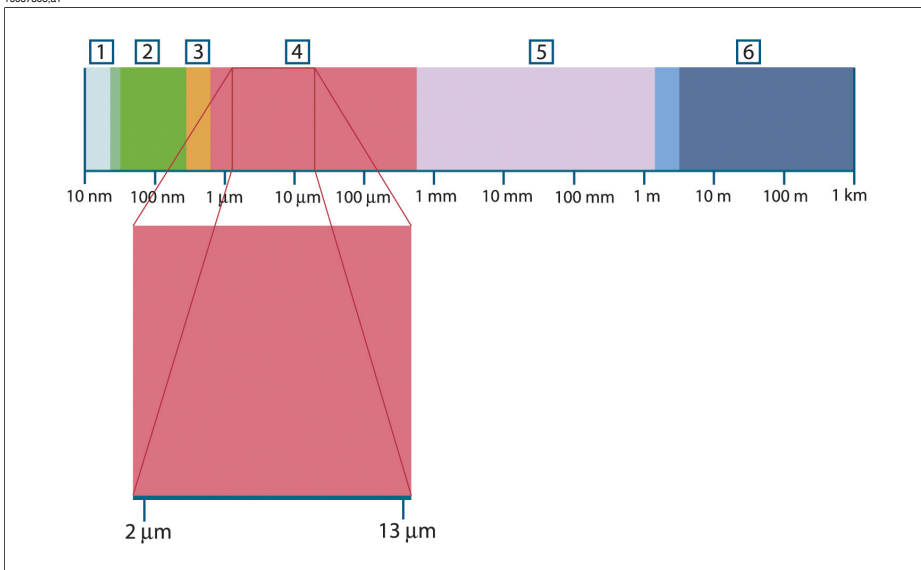


Figure 14.1 The electromagnetic spectrum. 1: X-ray; 2: UV; 3: Visible; 4: IR; 5: Microwaves; 6: Radiowaves.

Thermography makes use of the infrared spectral band. At the short-wavelength end the boundary lies at the limit of visual perception, in the deep red. At the long-wavelength end it merges with the microwave radio wavelengths, in the millimeter range.

The infrared band is often further subdivided into four smaller bands, the boundaries of which are also arbitrarily chosen. They include: the *near infrared* (0.75–3 μm), the *middle infrared* (3–6 μm), the *far infrared* (6–15 μm) and the *extreme infrared* (15–100

μm). Although the wavelengths are given in μm (micrometers), other units are often still used to measure wavelength in this spectral region, e.g. nanometer (nm) and Ångström (Å).

The relationships between the different wavelength measurements is:

$$10\,000\text{ Å} = 1\,000\text{ nm} = 1\text{ }\mu = 1\text{ }\mu\text{m}$$

14.3 Blackbody radiation

A blackbody is defined as an object which absorbs all radiation that impinges on it at any wavelength. The apparent misnomer *black* relating to an object emitting radiation is explained by Kirchhoff's Law (after *Gustav Robert Kirchhoff*, 1824–1887), which states that a body capable of absorbing all radiation at any wavelength is equally capable in the emission of radiation.

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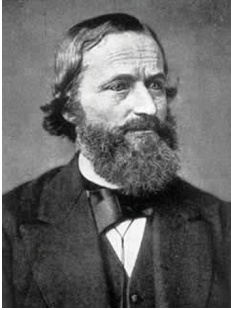


Figure 14.2 Gustav Robert Kirchhoff (1824–1887)

The construction of a blackbody source is, in principle, very simple. The radiation characteristics of an aperture in an isotherm cavity made of an opaque absorbing material represents almost exactly the properties of a blackbody. A practical application of the principle to the construction of a perfect absorber of radiation consists of a box that is light tight except for an aperture in one of the sides. Any radiation which then enters the hole is scattered and absorbed by repeated reflections so only an infinitesimal fraction can possibly escape. The blackness which is obtained at the aperture is nearly equal to a blackbody and almost perfect for all wavelengths.

By providing such an isothermal cavity with a suitable heater it becomes what is termed a *cavity radiator*. An isothermal cavity heated to a uniform temperature generates blackbody radiation, the characteristics of which are determined solely by the temperature of the cavity. Such cavity radiators are commonly used as sources of radiation in temperature reference standards in the laboratory for calibrating thermographic instruments, such as a FLIR Systems camera for example.

If the temperature of blackbody radiation increases to more than 525°C (977°F), the source begins to be visible so that it appears to the eye no longer black. This is the incipient red heat temperature of the radiator, which then becomes orange or yellow as the temperature increases further. In fact, the definition of the so-called *color temperature* of an object is the temperature to which a blackbody would have to be heated to have the same appearance.

Now consider three expressions that describe the radiation emitted from a blackbody.

14.3.1 Planck’s law

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Figure 14.3 Max Planck (1858–1947)

Max Planck (1858–1947) was able to describe the spectral distribution of the radiation from a blackbody by means of the following formula:

$$W_{\lambda b} = \frac{2\pi hc^2}{\lambda^5 \left(e^{\frac{hc}{\lambda kT}} - 1 \right)} \times 10^{-6} [Watt / m^2, \mu m]$$

where:

$W_{\lambda b}$	Blackbody spectral radiant emittance at wavelength λ .
c	Velocity of light = 3×10^8 m/s
h	Planck’s constant = 6.6×10^{-34} Joule sec.
k	Boltzmann’s constant = 1.4×10^{-23} Joule/K.
T	Absolute temperature (K) of a blackbody.
λ	Wavelength (μm).

☛ The factor 10^{-6} is used since spectral emittance in the curves is expressed in $\text{Watt/m}^2, \mu\text{m}$.

Planck's formula, when plotted graphically for various temperatures, produces a family of curves. Following any particular Planck curve, the spectral emittance is zero at $\lambda = 0$, then increases rapidly to a maximum at a wavelength λ_{max} and after passing it approaches zero again at very long wavelengths. The higher the temperature, the shorter the wavelength at which maximum occurs.

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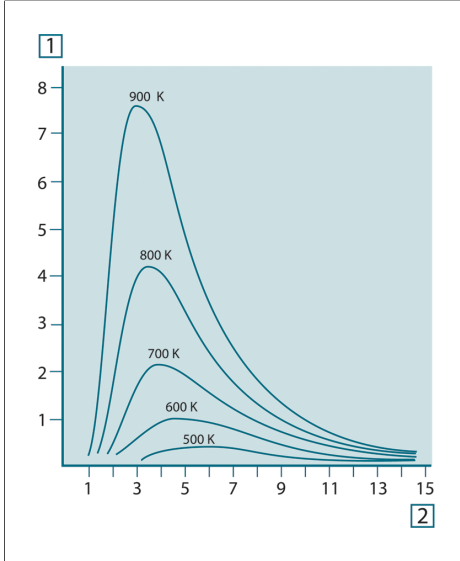


Figure 14.4 Blackbody spectral radiant emittance according to Planck's law, plotted for various absolute temperatures. **1:** Spectral radiant emittance ($\text{W/cm}^2 \times 10^3(\mu\text{m})$); **2:** Wavelength (μm)

14.3.2 Wien's displacement law

By differentiating Planck's formula with respect to λ , and finding the maximum, we have:

$$\lambda_{\text{max}} = \frac{2898}{T} [\mu\text{m}]$$

This is Wien's formula (after *Wilhelm Wien*, 1864–1928), which expresses mathematically the common observation that colors vary from red to orange or yellow as the temperature of a thermal radiator increases. The wavelength of the color is the same as the wavelength calculated for λ_{max} . A good approximation of the value of λ_{max} for a given blackbody temperature is obtained by applying the rule-of-thumb $3\,000/T$

μm . Thus, a very hot star such as Sirius (11 000 K), emitting bluish-white light, radiates with the peak of spectral radiant emittance occurring within the invisible ultraviolet spectrum, at wavelength $0.27\ \mu\text{m}$.

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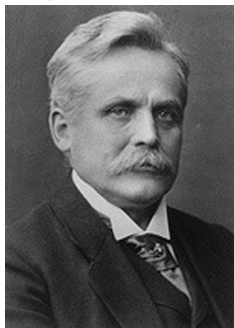


Figure 14.5 Wilhelm Wien (1864–1928)

The sun (approx. 6 000 K) emits yellow light, peaking at about $0.5\ \mu\text{m}$ in the middle of the visible light spectrum.

At room temperature (300 K) the peak of radiant emittance lies at $9.7\ \mu\text{m}$, in the far infrared, while at the temperature of liquid nitrogen (77 K) the maximum of the almost insignificant amount of radiant emittance occurs at $38\ \mu\text{m}$, in the extreme infrared wavelengths.

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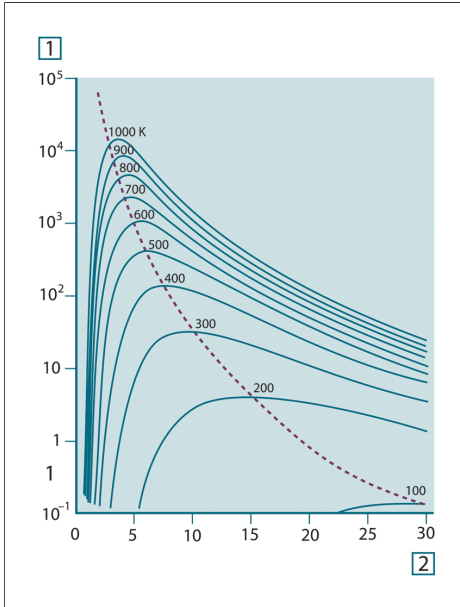


Figure 14.6 Planckian curves plotted on semi-log scales from 100 K to 1000 K. The dotted line represents the locus of maximum radiant emittance at each temperature as described by Wien's displacement law. **1:** Spectral radiant emittance (W/cm² (μm)); **2:** Wavelength (μm).

14.3.3 Stefan-Boltzmann's law

By integrating Planck's formula from $\lambda = 0$ to $\lambda = \infty$, we obtain the total radiant emittance (W_b) of a blackbody:

$$W_b = \sigma T^4 \text{ [Watt/m}^2\text{]}$$

This is the Stefan-Boltzmann formula (after *Josef Stefan*, 1835–1893, and *Ludwig Boltzmann*, 1844–1906), which states that the total emissive power of a blackbody is proportional to the fourth power of its absolute temperature. Graphically, W_b represents the area below the Planck curve for a particular temperature. It can be shown that the radiant emittance in the interval $\lambda = 0$ to λ_{\max} is only 25% of the total, which represents about the amount of the sun's radiation which lies inside the visible light spectrum.

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Figure 14.7 Josef Stefan (1835–1893), and Ludwig Boltzmann (1844–1906)

Using the Stefan-Boltzmann formula to calculate the power radiated by the human body, at a temperature of 300 K and an external surface area of approx. 2 m², we obtain 1 kW. This power loss could not be sustained if it were not for the compensating absorption of radiation from surrounding surfaces, at room temperatures which do not vary too drastically from the temperature of the body – or, of course, the addition of clothing.

14.3.4 Non-blackbody emitters

So far, only blackbody radiators and blackbody radiation have been discussed. However, real objects almost never comply with these laws over an extended wavelength region – although they may approach the blackbody behavior in certain spectral intervals. For example, a certain type of white paint may appear perfectly *white* in the visible light spectrum, but becomes distinctly *gray* at about 2 μm, and beyond 3 μm it is almost *black*.

There are three processes which can occur that prevent a real object from acting like a blackbody: a fraction of the incident radiation α may be absorbed, a fraction ρ may be reflected, and a fraction τ may be transmitted. Since all of these factors are more or less wavelength dependent, the subscript λ is used to imply the spectral dependence of their definitions. Thus:

- The spectral absorptance α_λ = the ratio of the spectral radiant power absorbed by an object to that incident upon it.
- The spectral reflectance ρ_λ = the ratio of the spectral radiant power reflected by an object to that incident upon it.
- The spectral transmittance τ_λ = the ratio of the spectral radiant power transmitted through an object to that incident upon it.

The sum of these three factors must always add up to the whole at any wavelength, so we have the relation:

$$\alpha_\lambda + \rho_\lambda + \tau_\lambda = 1$$

For opaque materials $\tau_\lambda = 0$ and the relation simplifies to:

$$\alpha_\lambda + \rho_\lambda = 1$$

Another factor, called the emissivity, is required to describe the fraction ε of the radiant emittance of a blackbody produced by an object at a specific temperature. Thus, we have the definition:

The spectral emissivity ε_λ = the ratio of the spectral radiant power from an object to that from a blackbody at the same temperature and wavelength.

Expressed mathematically, this can be written as the ratio of the spectral emittance of the object to that of a blackbody as follows:

$$\varepsilon_\lambda = \frac{W_{\lambda o}}{W_{\lambda b}}$$

Generally speaking, there are three types of radiation source, distinguished by the ways in which the spectral emittance of each varies with wavelength.

- A blackbody, for which $\varepsilon_\lambda = \varepsilon = 1$
- A graybody, for which $\varepsilon_\lambda = \varepsilon = \text{constant less than } 1$
- A selective radiator, for which ε varies with wavelength

According to Kirchhoff's law, for any material the spectral emissivity and spectral absorptance of a body are equal at any specified temperature and wavelength. That is:

$$\varepsilon_\lambda = \alpha_\lambda$$

From this we obtain, for an opaque material (since $\alpha_\lambda + \rho_\lambda = 1$):

$$\varepsilon_\lambda + \rho_\lambda = 1$$

For highly polished materials ε_λ approaches zero, so that for a perfectly reflecting material (*i.e.* a perfect mirror) we have:

$$\rho_\lambda = 1$$

For a graybody radiator, the Stefan-Boltzmann formula becomes:

$$W = \varepsilon \sigma T^4 \text{ [Watt/m}^2\text{]}$$

This states that the total emissive power of a graybody is the same as a blackbody at the same temperature reduced in proportion to the value of ε from the graybody.

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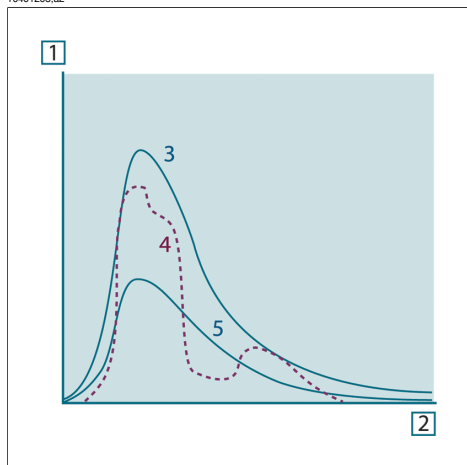


Figure 14.8 Spectral radiant emittance of three types of radiators. 1: Spectral radiant emittance; 2: Wavelength; 3: Blackbody; 4: Selective radiator; 5: Graybody.

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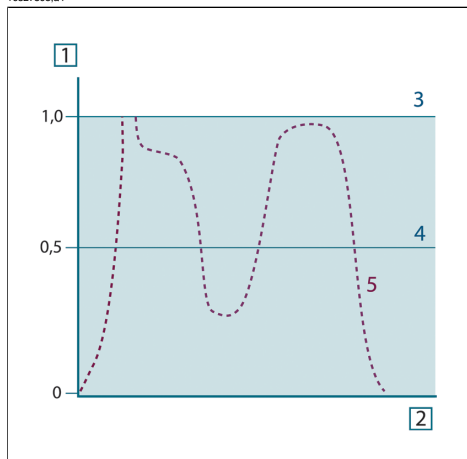


Figure 14.9 Spectral emissivity of three types of radiators. 1: Spectral emissivity; 2: Wavelength; 3: Blackbody; 4: Graybody; 5: Selective radiator.

14.4 Infrared semi-transparent materials

Consider now a non-metallic, semi-transparent body – let us say, in the form of a thick flat plate of plastic material. When the plate is heated, radiation generated within its volume must work its way toward the surfaces through the material in which it is partially absorbed. Moreover, when it arrives at the surface, some of it is reflected back into the interior. The back-reflected radiation is again partially absorbed, but

some of it arrives at the other surface, through which most of it escapes; part of it is reflected back again. Although the progressive reflections become weaker and weaker they must all be added up when the total emittance of the plate is sought. When the resulting geometrical series is summed, the effective emissivity of a semi-transparent plate is obtained as:

$$\varepsilon_{\lambda} = \frac{(1 - \rho_{\lambda})(1 - \tau_{\lambda})}{1 - \rho_{\lambda}\tau_{\lambda}}$$

When the plate becomes opaque this formula is reduced to the single formula:

$$\varepsilon_{\lambda} = 1 - \rho_{\lambda}$$

This last relation is a particularly convenient one, because it is often easier to measure reflectance than to measure emissivity directly.

15 The measurement formula

As already mentioned, when viewing an object, the camera receives radiation not only from the object itself. It also collects radiation from the surroundings reflected via the object surface. Both these radiation contributions become attenuated to some extent by the atmosphere in the measurement path. To this comes a third radiation contribution from the atmosphere itself.

This description of the measurement situation, as illustrated in the figure below, is so far a fairly true description of the real conditions. What has been neglected could for instance be sun light scattering in the atmosphere or stray radiation from intense radiation sources outside the field of view. Such disturbances are difficult to quantify, however, in most cases they are fortunately small enough to be neglected. In case they are not negligible, the measurement configuration is likely to be such that the risk for disturbance is obvious, at least to a trained operator. It is then his responsibility to modify the measurement situation to avoid the disturbance e.g. by changing the viewing direction, shielding off intense radiation sources etc.

Accepting the description above, we can use the figure below to derive a formula for the calculation of the object temperature from the calibrated camera output.

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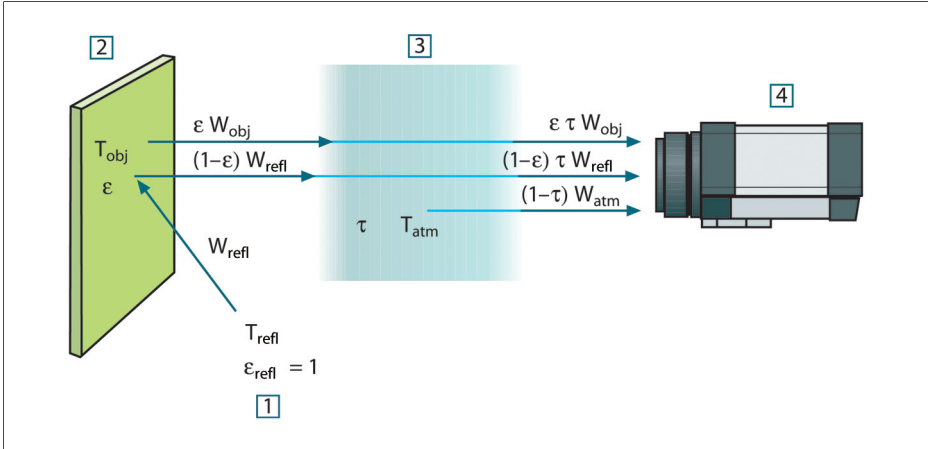


Figure 15.1 A schematic representation of the general thermographic measurement situation. 1: Surroundings; 2: Object; 3: Atmosphere; 4: Camera

Assume that the received radiation power W from a blackbody source of temperature T_{source} on short distance generates a camera output signal U_{source} that is proportional to the power input (power linear camera). We can then write (Equation 1):

$$U_{source} = CW(T_{source})$$

or, with simplified notation:

$$U_{source} = CW_{source}$$

where C is a constant.

Should the source be a graybody with emittance ε , the received radiation would consequently be εW_{source} .

We are now ready to write the three collected radiation power terms:

1 – *Emission from the object* = $\varepsilon \tau W_{obj}$, where ε is the emittance of the object and τ is the transmittance of the atmosphere. The object temperature is T_{obj} .

2 – *Reflected emission from ambient sources* = $(1 - \varepsilon) \tau W_{refl}$, where $(1 - \varepsilon)$ is the reflectance of the object. The ambient sources have the temperature T_{refl} .

It has here been assumed that the temperature T_{refl} is the same for all emitting surfaces within the halfsphere seen from a point on the object surface. This is of course sometimes a simplification of the true situation. It is, however, a necessary simplification in order to derive a workable formula, and T_{refl} can – at least theoretically – be given a value that represents an efficient temperature of a complex surrounding.

Note also that we have assumed that the emittance for the surroundings = 1. This is correct in accordance with Kirchhoff's law: All radiation impinging on the surrounding surfaces will eventually be absorbed by the same surfaces. Thus the emittance = 1. (Note though that the latest discussion requires the complete sphere around the object to be considered.)

3 – *Emission from the atmosphere* = $(1 - \tau) W_{atm}$, where $(1 - \tau)$ is the emittance of the atmosphere. The temperature of the atmosphere is T_{atm} .

The total received radiation power can now be written (Equation 2):

$$W_{tot} = \varepsilon \tau W_{obj} + (1 - \varepsilon) \tau W_{refl} + (1 - \tau) W_{atm}$$

We multiply each term by the constant C of Equation 1 and replace the CW products by the corresponding U according to the same equation, and get (Equation 3):

$$U_{tot} = \varepsilon \tau U_{obj} + (1 - \varepsilon) \tau U_{refl} + (1 - \tau) U_{atm}$$

Solve Equation 3 for U_{obj} (Equation 4):

$$U_{obj} = \frac{1}{\varepsilon\tau} U_{tot} - \frac{1-\varepsilon}{\varepsilon} U_{refl} - \frac{1-\tau}{\varepsilon\tau} U_{atm}$$

This is the general measurement formula used in all the FLIR Systems thermographic equipment. The voltages of the formula are:

Figure 15.2 Voltages

U_{obj}	Calculated camera output voltage for a blackbody of temperature T_{obj} i.e. a voltage that can be directly converted into true requested object temperature.
U_{tot}	Measured camera output voltage for the actual case.
U_{refl}	Theoretical camera output voltage for a blackbody of temperature T_{refl} according to the calibration.
U_{atm}	Theoretical camera output voltage for a blackbody of temperature T_{atm} according to the calibration.

The operator has to supply a number of parameter values for the calculation:

- the object emittance ε ,
- the relative humidity,
- T_{atm}
- object distance (D_{obj})
- the (effective) temperature of the object surroundings, or the reflected ambient temperature T_{refl} , and
- the temperature of the atmosphere T_{atm}

This task could sometimes be a heavy burden for the operator since there are normally no easy ways to find accurate values of emittance and atmospheric transmittance for the actual case. The two temperatures are normally less of a problem provided the surroundings do not contain large and intense radiation sources.

A natural question in this connection is: How important is it to know the right values of these parameters? It could though be of interest to get a feeling for this problem already here by looking into some different measurement cases and compare the relative magnitudes of the three radiation terms. This will give indications about when it is important to use correct values of which parameters.

The figures below illustrates the relative magnitudes of the three radiation contributions for three different object temperatures, two emittances, and two spectral ranges: SW and LW. Remaining parameters have the following fixed values:

- $\tau = 0.88$
- $T_{refl} = +20^{\circ}\text{C} (+68^{\circ}\text{F})$
- $T_{atm} = +20^{\circ}\text{C} (+68^{\circ}\text{F})$

It is obvious that measurement of low object temperatures are more critical than measuring high temperatures since the 'disturbing' radiation sources are relatively much stronger in the first case. Should also the object emittance be low, the situation would be still more difficult.

We have finally to answer a question about the importance of being allowed to use the calibration curve above the highest calibration point, what we call extrapolation. Imagine that we in a certain case measure $U_{\text{tot}} = 4.5$ volts. The highest calibration point for the camera was in the order of 4.1 volts, a value unknown to the operator. Thus, even if the object happened to be a blackbody, i.e. $U_{\text{obj}} = U_{\text{tot}}$, we are actually performing extrapolation of the calibration curve when converting 4.5 volts into temperature.

Let us now assume that the object is not black, it has an emittance of 0.75, and the transmittance is 0.92. We also assume that the two second terms of Equation 4 amount to 0.5 volts together. Computation of U_{obj} by means of Equation 4 then results in $U_{\text{obj}} = 4.5 / 0.75 / 0.92 - 0.5 = 6.0$. This is a rather extreme extrapolation, particularly when considering that the video amplifier might limit the output to 5 volts! Note, though, that the application of the calibration curve is a theoretical procedure where no electronic or other limitations exist. We trust that if there had been no signal limitations in the camera, and if it had been calibrated far beyond 5 volts, the resulting curve would have been very much the same as our real curve extrapolated beyond 4.1 volts, provided the calibration algorithm is based on radiation physics, like the FLIR Systems algorithm. Of course there must be a limit to such extrapolations.

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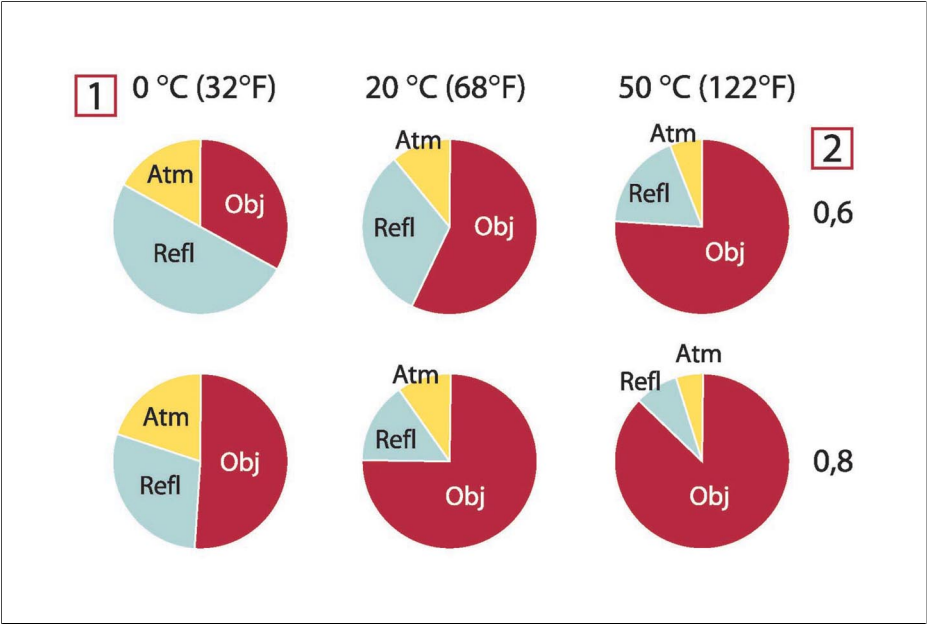


Figure 15.3 Relative magnitudes of radiation sources under varying measurement conditions (SW camera).
1: Object temperature; **2:** Emittance; **Obj:** Object radiation; **Refl:** Reflected radiation; **Atm:** atmosphere radiation. Fixed parameters: $\tau = 0.88$; $T_{\text{refl}} = 20^{\circ}\text{C}$ (+68°F); $T_{\text{atm}} = 20^{\circ}\text{C}$ (+68°F).

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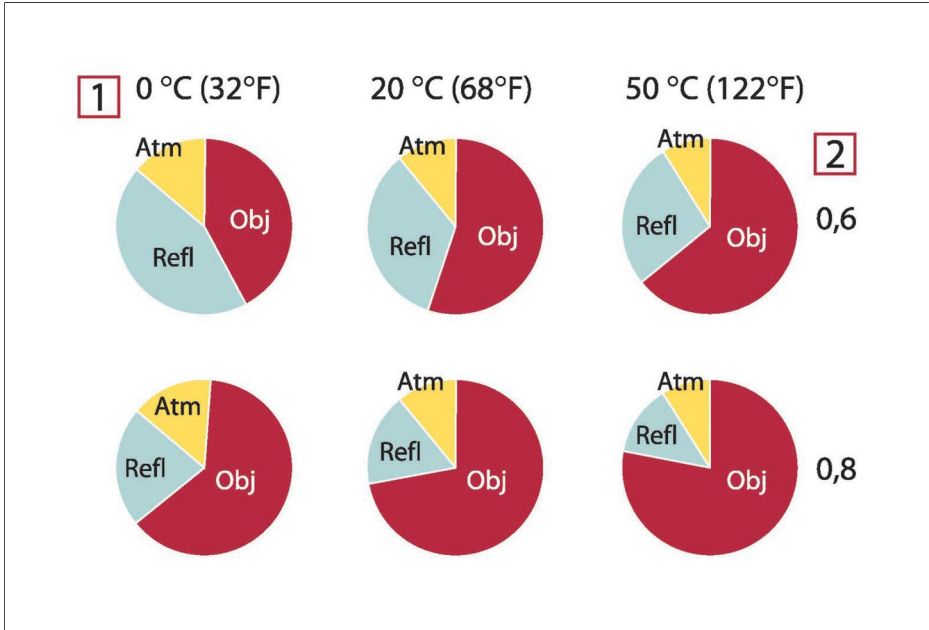


Figure 15.4 Relative magnitudes of radiation sources under varying measurement conditions (LW camera). **1:** Object temperature; **2:** Emittance; **Obj:** Object radiation; **Refl:** Reflected radiation; **Atm:** atmosphere radiation. Fixed parameters: $\tau = 0.88$; $T_{\text{refl}} = 20^\circ\text{C}$ (+68°F); $T_{\text{atm}} = 20^\circ\text{C}$ (+68°F).

A note on the technical production of this publication

This publication was produced using XML—the *eXtensible Markup Language*. For more information about XML, please visit <http://www.w3.org/XML/>

A note on the typeface used in this publication

This publication was typeset using Swiss 721, which is Bitstream's pan-European version of the Helvetica™ typeface. Helvetica™ was designed by Max Miedinger (1910–1980).

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